

FEB 21 1929

EDUCATIONAL ROOM
GENERAL LIBRARY
UNIV. OF MICH.

The **Journal of Educational Sociology**

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

Vol. II

FEBRUARY, 1929

No. 6

Editorial	E. George Payne	331
A Socio-Educational Philosophy of the Curriculum	Robert W. Frederick	334
Health Education and the Public Health of the Future	Iago Galdston	341
The Cost of Parochial Education in Chicago. I.	Robert E. O'Brien	349
United States History Contributions to Projects in Health Education	Mary Moriarty	357
Curriculum Building and the New Social Sciences	Guy V. Price	365
Research Projects and Methods in Educational Sociology		380
Book Reviews		384
News from the Field		391
Contributors' Page		393

The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

Editorial Staff

E. GEORGE PAYNE, Editor-in-Chief

Associate Editors

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

FREDERIC M. THRASHER

B. F. STALCUP

Contributing Editors

EMORY S. BOGARDUS

IRA M. GAST

WALTER W. PETTIT

JOHN M. BREWER

JOHN C. GEBHART

R. E. PICKETT

F. STUART CHAPIN

ALVIN GOOD

WILLIAM C. RUEDIGER

GEORGE S. COUNTS

ERNEST R. GROVES

W. R. SMITH

PHILIP W. L. COX

JOSEPH K. HART

DAVID SNEDDEN

C. A. ELLWOOD

PAUL S. LOMAX

HENRY A. SUZZALLO

ELLSWORTH FARIS

ROBERT E. PARK

JOHN J. TIGERT

ROSS L. FINNEY

CHARLES C. PETERS

JOHN W. WITHERS

PERMANENT DEPARTMENTS

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY,

FREDERIC M. THRASHER, Editor

A department that will give an opportunity for a short report of each research in process in the colleges and universities, so that those immediately concerned may become familiar with the type of work that is in progress. This department will give opportunity to readers to submit their own contributions in articles of one to two hundred words.

INQUIRY AND READERS' DISCUSSION, HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH, Editor

A department conducted for the purpose of giving opportunity to any reader to raise questions within the field of interest of THE JOURNAL.

BOOK REVIEWS, HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH, Editor

A department conducted for the purpose of presenting to the teaching profession a real estimate of the latest books in the field. The editor will strive to obtain frank criticism and critical estimates of the books published.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD, B. F. STALCUP, Editor

A department conducted for the purpose of keeping the readers in touch with present activities in the colleges and universities in the field of sociology and, particularly, educational sociology.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE, B. F. STALCUP, Editor

A department presenting a short biography of each writer in the current number of THE JOURNAL for the purpose of making the readers better acquainted with the contributors of the articles.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY—a Magazine of Theory and Practice—is published monthly by The American Viewpoint Society, Inc., during the months of January, February, March, April, May, June, September, October, November and December.

Publication Office, 883 Broadway, Albany, N. Y.

Editorial and General Offices, 13 Astor Place, New York, N. Y.

The subscription price is \$3.00 per year; the price of single copies is 35 cents. Orders for service of less than a half year will be charged at the single-copy rate.

Entered as second-class matter September 12, 1927 at the Post office at Albany, New York, under the Act of March 3, 1879.

PRINTED IN THE U. S. A.

Fort Orange Press, Albany, N. Y.

The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

Copyright, 1929, by The American Viewpoint Society, Inc.

Vol. II

FEBRUARY, 1929

No. 6

EDITORIAL

The editor of THE JOURNAL has received a letter from Mr. Walter Barnes which, although not inspired directly by previous editorials in THE JOURNAL, bears so directly upon them that it ought to have a place in the editorial column. THE JOURNAL has frequently advocated a scientific method in sociology and has committed itself to the scientific approach in the study of social data. This letter presents another emphasis. We, therefore, give it place on this page. The statement is as follows:

"Since I am neither a sociologist nor a philosopher, *therefore* I feel free to philosophize sociologically. Fools *ought* to rush in where angels fear to tread: in that way fools will make the world safe for the angels.

"I can understand why sociologists are averse to the philosophical method, if philosophers *have* a method: The aforesaid sociologists wish to woo the scientific maiden, who, according to all accounts, is a jealous miss, not at all willing to divide her affections. Nevertheless, I find it in my heart to desire, in all seriousness, that sociologists, in their zeal to place their subject on a scientific basis (which is the basis it should be on), should not be so neglectful nor so scornful of philosophy.

"If there is any one in the world who should philosophize, who needs to philosophize, who has to philosophize, it is the sociologist. If he deals with the past, with primitive cultures, for example, how can he, if he is intellectually curious, fail to wonder how primitive man 'got that way,' and having wondered, how can he fail to try to explain? If he deals with crowds and 'their tricks and manners,' how can he satisfy himself until he gets hold of some underlying principle of life? And if he deal with some of the applications of sociology (with educational sociology, for example), if he believes in the telic functions of sociology, how can he be intellectually honest until he has come to conclusions about the meaning of life? How can he help the world along toward its goal until he has made up his own mind what the goal is? How can he further progress if he refuses to define progress, and takes the easy way out?

"But so far as I am concerned, I don't want the philosopher, the 'pure,' speculative philosopher to do it. The one person who is best equipped to do the most important thing in the universe, to tell mankind where it is going and how to get there, is the sociologist. For he is the only man that knows mankind. The psychologist may know man, but a mere collection of men, the sum total of all men isn't mankind. And the arm-chair philosopher, who, remote from life and suffering, perhaps, from dyspepsia or idealism, gets hold of some attractive theory, then pulls and tugs at the facts of life until he has fitted it all nicely and snugly into his theory—what hope is there in him?

"But the sociologist, facing frankly and scientifically the raw, brute facts of life, seeing mankind in the rough and in the large, able to compare society now with what it has been, armed with the information needed to trace the sinuous, half-obliterated path that mankind has made from the beginnings up to (or *down* to) the present, he is the one person who may hope to interpret life, explain man to himself, read the riddle of the universe.

"Sociology must be both a science and a philosophy. It is the only study that must look both ways: out on the facts of life and then forward and backward (and up-word?) to the great truths and principles and tendencies and trends and drifts of life.

"I am aware, of course, of the necessity that each new study differentiate itself, disentangle itself from other related studies. And I can understand—at least in part—the desire of the sociologist to establish his subject on an objective, scientific foundation. Well, let the sociologist continue defining and limiting his field, let him continue collecting and collating and interpreting his scientific findings. He may be as assiduously and scrupulously scientific as he chooses: and that is desirable—not that he thus establish himself on a par with scientists in other fields, not that he may have 'standing' in this science-minded age, but that he may have a study of facts at hand with which he may discover and reveal the truths, the elemental, fundamental truths about humanity. Let him *prove* the facts that he may *im-prove* the world."

There is no wish to quarrel with the point of view expressed by Mr. Barnes. There is no wish to deny the importance of a sociological philosophy of education. Many are interested in that aspect of the subject and discussion. Most of the books in fact have approached the study from the philosophical point of view. While THE JOURNAL does not deny its importance, it does feel strongly that the scientific approach offers greatest possibility for the development of a body of facts significant for the reconstruction of our educational procedure. Since so many are interested in the philosophical aspect of the subject, THE JOURNAL is devoting its energies to the development of the scientific side. We, therefore, do not wish to disapprove of the emphasis which Mr. Barnes would give but we insist upon giving the emphasis in which we are interested.

A SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF THE CURRICULUM

ROBERT W. FREDERICK

Educators for several years and indeed for centuries have been pecking away at the curriculum. Isolated individuals in recent times have been proclaiming that the school is life, that adult needs must be prepared for, that adult activities must be analyzed into specific habits, skills, and abilities, that dependence must not be put upon hope of transfer, that adult errors must be sought, that the basis of the curriculum must be social needs, that health life is the first essential, that emotionalized attitudes be emphasized, that activities should form the basic structure, that subject matter should be intrinsically valuable, that the survey is the way out, that all educational employees should help make the curriculum, that the old subjects should be revamped, that new subjects must be added, that method is subject-matter, that specific case groups should be studied, so *ad infinitum*.

The result is that confusion reigns supreme, especially on the secondary level. The poor superintendent and principal are so harried and perplexed that the old days of the certainty of the efficacy of Latin and the other "disciplines" gain in attractiveness. The public is also becoming wearied of so many "new-fangled notions" and the rising cost entailed. The educator, safely entrenched in his easy chair, is blamed for the "many ills" which have befallen the schools. Mr. DeVoto has proposed no less than hanging for these disrupters of the solid and effective education which produced the DeVotos and his equally erudite and inspired critics.

Thus the time is ripe for some sort of synthesis of all the many ideas. If possible, let us step back as does the artist from his canvas to gain a new perspective. In a

time which seeks a statistical formula by means of which to manage schools and which counts the number of columns in newspapers and magazines to escape the necessity of thinking about school problems, this armchair type of approach is ventured at the risk of reputation and even a hearing.

To gain this perspective it is helpful to recall that most fundamental of all human questions: Why a human race? What is the meaning of existence? Why was I born? What would be lost if the whole human race would suddenly cease to be? What is man's place in the economy of the universe? These and similar questions have been the concern of man down the ages. Still, "we look through a glass darkly," unable, in spite of the researches of Mr. Lodge and Mr. Doyle, to see into the world beyond.

This problem must be left unanswered, but out of it grows a more pertinent one: What shall we do with this existence which a long process of selection has thrust inevitably upon us? A thorough nature has assured the perpetuation of the race of men. Voluntary suicide is untenable. Thus the problem of disposing of our own and others' allotment of years descends upon us who are living today. We are faced inevitably with the question of how we shall spend our time, to what ends and for what purposes shall we direct our energies?

The alternatives are many. The stoic will bear, the "homeless man" will subsist with the least effort, the artist will live for his supreme masterpiece, the hedonist will abstract the last jot and tittle of pleasure, the "flapper" will seek her thrills, the leisure class will seek relief from boredom.

The self-styled "social engineer" will, however, not be satisfied with any such policies to guide in the disposal of man's four-score years and ten. He has a sound and vigorous policy to suggest; namely, that all energy and effort be directed to the improvement of man's lot as a resident

of this earthly home. Stated differently, the best disposal that man can make of his enforced stay on earth is to dedicate his efforts towards the attainment of that final goal when the kingdom of heaven will be reached, when all men shall enjoy life with the maximum of pleasure and the least pain, suffering and hardship. Thus is stated the telic conception of society. The goal is perfection, Utopia, all good for all, the day when war shall cease, when disease shall pass from us, when hunger shall be known no more. It is man's highest privilege to dedicate his efforts towards the attainment of this final state.

The implication for the curriculum maker is obvious. His task is to select, group, and classify the learnings or activities through which the school as a social institution may contribute to this onward climb of man towards eventual and ever advancing stages of perfection. Each recommendation, however trivial, must be judged finally in the light of its contribution to the betterment of the lot of man. Unless the date of Poe's birth or the habit of brushing the teeth have a bearing on this fundamental problem they have no place in our schools nor in our life.

The second step in this socio-educational philosophy is the breaking up of man's existence into its component parts or phases. That this step is necessary needs no justification. Life is complex. It is, we are told, becoming increasingly complex. Just as the expert mechanic attacks the stalled motor car through its parts, ignition, fuel supply, transmission, etc., so must the social philosopher separate the far more intricate human life into its elements or parts.

This analysis has been done over and over again. Spencer, Parker, Inglis, Bobbitt, Chapman, and Counts, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education have all presented various analyses of the major aspects of man's life and interests. Each new classification is, for the most part, only a regrouping, a new definition, or a new emphasis. At the risk of repetition the fol-

lowing classification of man's interests is given with the caution that the divisions are not mutually exclusive.

First, *health* includes the problems of adequate physical vitality or tone, freedom from diseases, all personal and social hygiene. Second, *home or family life* is concerned with the questions of the home as the preserver of the biological inheritance, the proper care and nurture of the young, and the efficient functioning of the sex impulse. Third, *economic life formal* considers the specific vocation, or job, or professional interest. Fourth, *economic life informal* deals with economic interests and problems outside the individual's particular vocation, such as labor vs. capital dispute, wise purchasing, budgeting, saving, etc. Fifth, *associational life formal*, commonly called citizenship, includes all that is involved in one's formal relations with the government. Sixth, *associational life informal* deals with that aspect of human life which considers the more personal contacts, the amenities of life, getting on with one's neighbors, politeness, courtesy, etc. Seventh, *religious life* involves the place of man in the scheme of existence, the fundamental questions of the purpose in life, relation to God, and explanation of phenomena such as death and immortality, which are not amenable to scientific explanation. Eighth, *ethical-moral life* considers the responsibility of man to his fellowmen. It is more restricted in scope than informal associational life. Ninth, *recreational life* or worthy use of leisure is concerned with the whole problem of how to spend our time not occupied with work and other duties, problems of release of tension, relaxation, effects, good and bad, of common recreational pursuits, as fishing, dancing, etc. Tenth, *aesthetic life* is closely allied to the recreational interest. It is different, however, in that this embraces the spiritual, the beautiful, appreciation of wonders, and ennobling aspects of paintings, sculpture, literature; in fact, all art, artificial and natural. It involves that "something plus," that "warm

glow." Eleventh, the *fundamental processes* include expression of ideas orally and in writing, use of numbers, and reading. All these are major human interests because of the indispensable character of these skills in modern life.

If the analysis is correct, then any human interest or concern from birth to death is included. Another step in the building of a curriculum philosophy has been taken. Now the problem may be stated: to make existence most worth while and to advance man towards the perfect state, each individual must be perfected in health, in his home life, and so on.

The next step requires the aid of the sociologist, the statistician, and the social philosopher. This step is to describe what would be the ideal functioning of each of man's fields of activity, to set up standards, and to ascertain wherein these standards fail of attainment. In other words, what should be the recreational life of Americans and what are the defects in the present use of leisure. To illustrate: The major needs in the home life of America may be said to be more stable homes, more children from the favored classes, lower rate of infant mortality, etc. Thus the problem is further refined. It now becomes: how can the infant mortality rate be decreased, the number of divorces decreased, marriages be made more rational?

It is now necessary to decide for which of the needs or defects in each of the fields of human interests the school is responsible. This question seems to be solved by delegating to the school at least partial responsibility for each aspect of life and for all needs in each field. Whether or not this is the proper solution is questionable. It is probably more logical to state that all agencies in society, the press, the home, the church, the school, custom, etc., should be united in the struggle to perfect man in each of his spheres of life. To prevent duplication and neglect some master statesman and thinker is needed to allocate responsibility among the instrumentalities of social control.

Educators must at this stage in the process seek out those learnings or activities which will fulfill the needs for which the school is responsible. This question, in general, has been answered by saying that the school must give knowledges, interests, ideals, habits, attitudes, and powers in each of the fields of human interest. Here indeed is the crux of the matter, for it is no simple task to decide which knowledges, interests, etc., should be given.

Next must be considered what resources the school should employ. The usual plan is to assume that the formal program is the central agency upon which dependence should be placed. This is an assumption which has not been substantiated. The answer is suggested that each aspect of the total school life as the studies, or program, assembly, extra-curricular activities, corridors, methods of teaching, extra-school activities of pupils should be used in the process of transmitting the proper ideals, habits, and knowledges.

To summarize, then, the problem of curriculum construction is reducible to several great steps. These steps or stages are as follows: (1) Since we lack a certain knowledge of the meaning of existence the only alternative is to make the best of life. (2) Human life is so complex that any improvement must be proceeded by an analysis of the great common or universal interest or aspects of man's life, the malfunctioning or omission of any one of which would seriously handicap man's search after the ultimate Utopia. (3) Having thus separated for convenience man's major concerns we must now find the defects and needs in each. (4) This done, the responsibility for improvement must be allocated to the major instrumentalities of social control. (5) Having determined for which fields or which needs in each field the school is responsible, the educators' next duty is to decide what knowledges, interests, ideals, habits, powers, and attitudes must be given to meet these needs. (6) Finally, the several aspects of school life which are to be

used must be selected and the exact contribution of each determined.

Thus is set up a task which offers unparalleled opportunity and unequalled complexity. Besides this problem others lose in significance. Much has been done but the major portion of the work lies ahead. The psychologist, sociologist, statistician, philosopher, educator, economist, layman, must unite their efforts if this great task is to be consummated or any progress made.

HEALTH EDUCATION AND THE PUBLIC HEALTH OF THE FUTURE¹

IAGO GALDSTON

In his admirable essay of the "Evolution of the Modern Health Campaign," Professor Winslow divides the history of the movement into three periods. The first period dating from 1840 to 1890 was characterized by the application of environmental sanitation, especially affecting water, sewage disposal, quarantine, and the like. The second period dating from 1890 to 1910 witnessed the phenomenal advance in the control of the communicable diseases resultant on the application of the newer knowledge of bacteriology. The third, or present period dating from about 1910, is characterized by its dominant motive, the education of the individual in the principles and practices of good personal hygiene.

Concerned as we are, at present, with health education and the public health of the future, our prime interest must of necessity center upon the third of these three outlined periods. It will profit us, however, to review the preceding periods, and to see what causative relationship there exists between them.

Within that space of seventy years from 1840 to 1910 is encompassed the greater part of the achievements of modern medicine and public health. How great these achievements are—few of us are competent to appreciate, save in a rather remote and impersonal manner. For most of us have been born into the advantages of modern medicine. The horrors of the plagues that beset and made dismal the lives of our ancestors are known to us only by hearsay. What know we of bubonic plague? What of smallpox, typhus, yellow fever, or typhoid? But rarely

¹Address delivered at the Twentieth Anniversary Meeting of the Michigan Tuberculosis Association, Lansing, Michigan.

now do these diseases appear, and then only in sporadic form—the flaring up, as it were, of the dying embers of a fire that throughout the ages has consumed more human lives than all the wars of the world.

In contrast, however, these plagues cast constant and sinister shadows over the lives of our forefathers. Read if you will Pepys's description of the 1665 plague of London, or Defoe's narrative but faithful portrayal of the ravages of this fearful epidemic—an epidemic that killed one in every four of London's inhabitants, that soured the milk of human kindness and blotted charity from out of the hearts of men, loosed the bonds of friendship and of filial love, and converted men into haunted beasts, fearful of all about them, seeking only to escape the invisible, impalpable enemy that stalked through the countryside.

Or, coming nearer home, read Dr. Benjamin Rush's description of the 1793 yellow fever epidemic in Philadelphia, an epidemic that killed one out of every ten inhabitants, and that through the fear and panic it engendered, made men belie the boast of their fair city—Philadelphia, the City of Brotherly Love.

The literature and the recorded history of mankind contains many a vivid portrayal of the ravages of the plagues that were rampant in the days previous to the development of modern medicine. Reading these, and contrasting the experiences of our forefathers with our own, we can secure some idea of how far we have progressed.

Smallpox, typhoid, cholera, yellow fever, malaria, bubonic plague, typhus—these were once major causes of disease and death. Today, at least in civilized communities, they are of secondary importance, if not merely clinical curiosities. Add to these the diseases which, if not eradicated, have at least been substantially reduced, diseases like tuberculosis, diphtheria, the diarrheal diseases of children and the like, and we begin to approximate the measure

of greatness in health achievement witnessed in the period previous to 1910.

But having contrasted the old with the new, having reviewed the roll of the diseases conquered—seeing further how life has been prolonged from an expectancy at birth of forty years, in the time of our great grandfathers, to a life expectancy of fifty-nine years for our children, having considered all this, it is but proper that we should ask how did this come about? What were the forces that made for this progress?

Progress of any kind is usually the resultant of many forces and, among these, some must be outstanding. The outstanding forces responsible for our great health progress may be named under three divisions—individual genius, enlightened government, and advancing economic conditions.

How can one account for the conquest of smallpox without taking into consideration the contributions of individual genius? Smallpox is a disease as old as mankind itself and for centuries continued its ravages unabated and unchecked. Then, but a while ago, an English country-town practitioner, somewhat bored by the duties of his everyday practice, literally stumbled across an observation which brought to the surface the genius within him and, gave us the first great immunologic instrument: the weapon with which to conquer smallpox. How great an achievement this was may be judged by the enthusiasm with which the world received vaccinia.

No less a rôle did individual genius play in the conquest of yellow fever. Less widespread, but more destructive than smallpox, yellow fever slaughtered thousands upon thousands of victims. I have already mentioned the great Philadelphia epidemic of 1793 in which one out of every ten inhabitants died. Between 1702 and 1800 yellow fever raised its destructive hydra head in the United States no less than thirty-five times. And from 1800 to 1873 yellow

fever appeared somewhere in the United States every year. You know how the Panama Canal construction attempted by the French was rendered fruitless by yellow fever. And you know how this same disease hampered the work of the United States engineers, until Reed and Gorgas solved the riddle of yellow fever. Here, again, it was individual genius, involving now not one but several individuals, that won for mankind victory over one of its great enemies.

Numerous were the contributions which individual genius made to our great health progress, but individual genius alone would hardly have sufficed to bring us so far on the path of public-health progress had not enlightened government applied, for the welfare of the community, the scientific facts discovered by the genius of individuals. One pointed, though negative illustration of this, is the story of Semmelweis, the great Hungarian physician, who even before our poet scientist, Holmes, discovered the infectious character of the cause of childbed fever. It was Semmelweis who observed that childbed fever, "all too often" terminating in the death of the delivered mother, was most common where the physician was "most unwashed." He urged common cleanliness and sanitation on the part of the physician attending the woman in labor. But in spite of the fact that his observations were correct and that his advice was fundamentally sound, he was too far ahead of his time, and neither the government nor his colleagues were enlightened enough to benefit by his observations. Poor Semmelweis was jeered at for his trouble, until the bitter injustice he suffered upset his mind.

After Jenner's great discovery was demonstrated beyond all shadow of doubt, practically every civilized country in the world made vaccination compulsory. The results were phenomenal. Smallpox was robbed of its terror. Individual genius and enlightened government combined to make living safer. Now there remains for consideration the

third great force, that of advancing economic conditions. In discussing this item, I am usually tempted to draw my illustrations from certain phases of the history of New York City.

New York City can now boast of an excellent water supply and a fairly good sewage system. Coming to New York you may drink water with a sense of safety, having no fear of typhoid. But this wasn't always so. In the days of the backyard outhouse and the backyard well, typhoid was common in the City. Its elimination was promoted by the later-day developed sewer system and our great water systems. But these were brought into being more in response to the economic needs of our community than because of the demands of public health. Whatever the motives may have been the ever advancing economic conditions have made their substantial contribution to the furthering of public health. And thus we see, how the operation of the three main forces, individual genius, enlightened government, and advancing economic conditions have brought us to that stage of high public-health development prevailing today.

So much for our progress in the past, and now, what of tomorrow and what of the day after? Are we to continue making the same progress as we have made in the past and will this program be due to the operation of the older forces, or must we develop new ones?

In the realm of economic science, there is a law known as the law of diminishing returns. This law seems to operate as well in the realm of public-health endeavor as in that of economics. For we see how in many a field our investment in effort, with the passing of time, brings ever smaller and smaller returns. Consider, for example, our tuberculosis movement and note how our rate of progress has declined of late, and almost in inverse ratio to the efforts we invest in the movement.

The law of diminishing returns certainly seems to affect the operation of the three forces we have enumerated be-

fore. Great as has been the progress made in the past, we may not hope for as much in the future unless new forces be brought into operation. And this must be readily evident. Not all of the outstanding diseases are amenable to control by the genius of individuals, by enlightened government, or by advancing economic conditions. There is available a vaccine that will immunize against smallpox, but because of this may we also hope for a vaccine that will immunize against bad mental hygiene. There are laws operating to compel the pasteurization of milk, but may we ever hope to spread among the people the good sense needed to drink milk by placing laws upon our statute books?

Even where individual genius and enlightened government have made their contributions, because there is oft lacking a something else, certain diseases remain unconquered. Allow me to illustrate my meaning by a consideration of diphtheria. You know that we have both a positive cure and a positive safeguard against this disease and, yet, every year in my community and I believe in yours, too, there are scores and scores of children needless victims of diphtheria. Why? Individual genius has done its part in discovering the cure, antitoxin, and the preventive, toxin-antitoxin. Enlightened government has contributed its share towards the war against diphtheria. And yet, the final battle has not been won. Why? The answer in part is as follows:

The great public-health progress of the past has been made without the active coöperation, oftentimes without the sympathy, without the understanding, and even against the opposition of the average man and woman in the community. Our citizens have been the passive recipients of the benefits of public health, in the promotion of which they have had no share and played no rôle. What had the average man in the street to do with the elimination of typhoid or with the control of malaria? Far too often, the average man's appreciation of public health is confined to the be-

grudging conformity with laws that are to him little more than a nuisance and the significance of which he does not understand. But, if we are to continue making progress in public health, this condition must be altered. Our citizens must be made to join the army of public health, they must serve as soldiers in the war against disease and not be, as so many are, slackers in ignorant league with death and disease.

But to enlist our citizens in the army of public health they first need health education. It is to health education then that we must look to for new momentum in our public-health progress. It is health education that will be the driving force of the public-health movement of the future. And that this is no vain prophecy may be seen from the following: Consider, if you will, certain of the present-day health problems. Consider, for example, the problem of mental hygiene or the problem of social hygiene or the problem of the so-called degenerative diseases. Is there any hope that these problems may ever be solved save through the education of the individual. Certain it is that we can hope for no serum, vaccine, pill, or powder that will endow a man with good mental habits and safeguard him against bad mental hygiene. All the laws of all the statute books since time immemorial have as yet failed to eliminate or solve the social-hygiene problem. And I know of no medication that has proved effective in keeping the go-getting American from wearing himself out prematurely. On the other hand, health education seems to hold out some promise in the solution of these problems.

Consider further this phase in the matter. The public-health movement of the past concerned itself primarily with the conquest of disease and the prolongation of life. The modern public-health movement has learned to appreciate that life has more than one dimension, that a long life is desirable, but a healthy as well as a long life is preferable.

The modern public-health movement has set itself the task not only of eliminating disease and of prolonging life, but also of improving the qualities of existence, and here health education plays its prominent rôle. For much of good health depends upon the intelligent utilization of our body resources—an intelligence which each individual must possess and which he can acquire only through health education.

In the past public health has done things for the individual; now, to frame it tersely, the individual must be taught to do things for himself. He must be health educated.

And now there is but one more point that I would like to consider, and that is the part the practising physician is to play in the promotion of health education. It is a regrettable but historically correct fact that the public-health movement in the United States, and for that matter throughout the world, came into being, developed, and flourished without the aid and often despite the opposition of organized medicine.

At first blush this is a shocking realization and yet one easily explained. The profession of medicine is an individualist profession, and its practitioners by heritage, training and tradition look with suspicion if not hostility on all mass movements. Time there was when this attitude was justifiable, but as relates to the public-health movement, that time is long past. Organized medicine and the private practitioner now have it incumbent upon them to join the public-health movement and to do their proper share of the work. This they must do—or they will be left behind.

And to my mind there is no phase of the public-health movement where the physician can function as well as in promoting health education. He has the necessary technical knowledge and exceptional opportunities. All he needs is a little training in pedagogy, and the willingness to pitch in.

THE COST OF PAROCHIAL EDUCATION IN CHICAGO

ROBERT E. O'BRIEN

I

A comparison of the cost of elementary education in the Chicago public schools and Roman Catholic parochial schools reveals the fact that public education costs \$106.30 more per pupil annually than parochial education. Table I shows the annual per pupil costs of public and parochial schools separated into the following items: operation, instruction, fixed charges, and maintenance. The parochial schools in 1926-1927 paid for operation \$3.60 per pupil; on the other hand the public schools spent \$8.50, a difference of \$4.90. One reason for this economy is that the larger heating systems of the public schools require a licensed engineer, while the steam- or vapor-heating plants of the parochial schools can be operated by relatively inexperienced help. Besides the parochial-school janitors are not unionized and consequently are not paid the union scale, nor are subject to union hours and working restrictions. Frequently the same man and his family care for the school, the convent, the church, and the parsonage.

Instruction in the parochial schools cost \$6.18 per pupil, compared to \$64.10 in the public schools, a difference of \$57.92. The small cost paid for teaching in the Catholic schools is made possible by the teaching communities or orders of the Roman Catholic Church. The sisters or nuns, as they are sometimes called, devote their lives to teaching in the schools of the Church as a religious duty. Parishes are required to furnish them a suitable residence with heat, light, and water. The salary paid each teacher by the parish is \$35 per month. Out of this sum the teachers board themselves and continue their education. On the other hand,

elementary-public school teachers of Chicago receive a minimum salary of \$1,500 per year, which is increased \$125 each year until a maximum of \$2,500 is reached.

Fixed charges and maintenance cover such items as interest on the investment, depreciation, insurance, repairs, and special assessments. These are listed under one head in the parochial-school costs, but the Board of Education of Chicago lists only one item, *maintenance*, covering repairs, insurance, and special assessments. The per pupil cost of maintenance in the public schools is reported as \$4.10. Depreciation and interest on the investment in cost of building were obtained from the per pupil cost of public-school buildings.¹ According to this method, the fixed charges for the year 1926 were \$56.25 for each pupil enrolled in the elementary grades. The cost of fixed charges and maintenance in the public schools exceeds that of the parochial schools by \$43.48 per pupil.

TABLE I
RELATIVE COST PER PUPIL OF THE PUBLIC AND ROMAN
CATHOLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF CHICAGO
FOR 1926-1927²

Items	Public Schools	Parochial Schools
Cost of operation.....	\$8.50	\$3.60
Cost of instruction.....	64.10	6.18
Cost of maintenance.....	4.10	
Fixed charges	56.25	16.87*
Total costs	\$132.95	\$26.65

*Fixed charges and maintenance are included in one item in the parochial-school survey.

Catholic parochial schools are able to secure supervision gratis since this function is exercised by the parish priests, members of the Archdiocesan School Board, Diocesan offi-

¹ Report of Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois, 1926, page 61.

² Costs of public education in Chicago are taken from Report of Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, page 102. Because of unpleasant criticism no information was issued the year following the trial of Superintendent William McAndrew. This information is for the year 1926. Costs of parochial education are taken from R. E. O'Brien, *Survey of Roman Catholic Elementary Schools*, 1928, page 208.

cials, and representatives of the Mother House whose members constitute the teaching staff of the local school. All supervision done by clerical members of the Archdiocesan School Board, by Diocesan officials, and priests is in addition to their regular duties as parish priests. Every clergyman who is associated with the schools serves as a pastor or assistant in some parish of the city where he receives his support. His supervisory work is in addition to his other clerical duties. Lay members of the Archdiocesan School Board donate their services. The Mother House through its income from members of the order and from its endowment pays for its own supervision.

The relative cost of public and parochial education can best be seen in an estimate of the additional financial burden which the taxpayers of Chicago would have to assume if the Catholic elementary schools were suddenly closed and the pupils placed in the public schools. The total enrollment of the Roman Catholic elementary schools in September, 1926, was 136,510 pupils. Should these children have entered the public schools in a body, the present public-school buildings would have been inadequate. New buildings would have to be erected to care for the entire influx, since the public schools were then suffering from a serious shortage of rooms.³ According to the estimate of the Board of Education of Chicago⁴ the lowest cost for these additional school buildings would have been \$127,978,125.

The cost of salaries for additional teachers and supervisors would have been \$8,750,291. The total cost of public-elementary education in Chicago would have been increased by the sum of \$18,149,004.50 if the public schools had been obliged to assume the education of the 136,510 parochial school pupils during 1926-1927. The Roman Catholic Church, however, spent only \$3,638,480 for the education of these same children. In other words it costs

³ Report of Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill., 1926, page 85.

⁴ *Ibid.*, page 61.

the Catholic Church about one fifth as much as it costs the city of Chicago to educate a child in the elementary grades.

The problem of raising the \$3,638,480 which it costs to maintain the elementary parochial schools per year rests squarely on the Roman Catholic Church. No public funds may be used in Illinois to support or assist private or church schools. The sources from which income is derived are (1) endowments, (2) diocesan support, (3) sale of articles, (4) tuition, and (5) contributions of the parishioners.

Endowments play a very limited part in the income of the elementary parochial schools,⁵ although invested funds belonging to the teaching communities indirectly benefit the schools. By means of these endowments the Mother House is enabled to train and support new members during their novitiate and to care for the ill and aged sisters. The Mother House also bears the expense of supervisors who visit the school at regular intervals to see that the superiors and teachers maintain the school according to the educational standards of the society.

Diocesan support is given only in cases where the need is great and where parishes are too poor to pay the expenses of a school. This assistance seldom takes the form of gifts for operating expenses; it is usually limited to donations to assist in the construction of new buildings. Aid is sometimes given poor schools by transferring used equipment to them from vacant or partially vacant parochial schools. Any support that the Diocesan officials give comes from the voluntary contributions of the Catholics of the diocese.

All of the Catholic elementary schools of Chicago sold school supplies, candy, chewing gum, and small articles used in worship such as candles (Table II). The superiors of each school usually had charge of these sales. When business was so great that it interfered with the other duties

⁵ Letter from J. J. Conner, chancellor.

of the superior, a teacher was entrusted with the responsibility. Income from these sales was usually applied to the needs of the convent, thus supplementing the income of the teachers. Sometimes the profits were used to purchase maps, charts, and library books. It was evident that much attention was paid to this business for during interviews both teachers and superiors would stop to display their wares and make a sale. Except in a few schools no record of the income is kept and no reports are made.

TABLE II

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS SELLING VARIOUS ARTICLES

Number of Schools	Articles Sold
214.....	School supplies
214.....	Candles
178.....	Religious cards and pictures
169.....	Candy, chewing gum, etc.
152.....	Milk
24.....	Toys, replicas, etc.

Collections were taken at the schools for various causes. The most frequent was a weekly offering taken in 163 schools for the purchase of chalk and other incidentals. It was argued that these collections of a few cents per week from each child had pedagogical worth since it made the child understand that its education was valuable because it cost something. It is probable that the collections did not originate in this theory, but in the practical necessity of procuring money to purchase the supplies. No figures were reported on the sums thus collected for few schools kept a record of these items.

The exact income derived from tuition cannot be stated as few schools kept accurate records. Tuition varies in different parishes; some schools are free, others charge each pupil from \$1.00 to \$3.00 per month. In most schools children who cannot afford to pay the regular tuition are allowed to earn their way by working about the building. Ten out of 214 schools varied the tuition according to the ability of the parents to pay.

TABLE III

THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS CHARGING TUITION AND THE
TUITION CHARGED, 1926-1927

Number of Schools	Amount Charged Per Month
1.....	\$3.00
181.....	1.00
14.....	.75
3.....	.50
2.....	.35
10.....	0 to 1.00
3.....	No tuition

The needs of the local parish appear to govern the rate of tuition and the strictness with which it is enforced. The three free schools are located near the business sections of Chicago in parishes where the members have moved away. Here the tuition was removed in an effort to attract children to the schools. It is difficult for most Catholic schools to compete with the public schools. As a rule the public schools have larger and more attractive buildings, better equipment and playgrounds superior to those of the parochial schools. In addition children in public schools are furnished school books and school supplies free of charge, whereas in the parochial schools they are obliged to purchase their supplies and textbooks and to contribute weekly to the purchase of such articles as chalk. When the expense of tuition is added to the other costs of parochial education there is a tendency for parents to send their children to public schools for economic reasons.

One teacher who had 167 eliminations to the public schools in September, 1927, attributed them all to the expense of parochial education. She said, "When the parents came for the transfer I pled with them to leave their children with us. I told them what it meant to the children, to them, to the Church, and to Saint C——, but they just shrugged their shoulders and said, 'He's been confirmed. Now he can go to the public school. Parochial school costs too much.'" When parishes are able to do so there

is a tendency to reduce the tuition to attract pupils. This is seldom possible because the members of the parish are usually unable to assume the entire support of the school.

Sometimes tuition is rigidly enforced in an effort to prevent children from poor and uncleanly families from attending school. The superior of a school for colored children asserted that by strict enforcement of the \$1.00 per month tuition she was able to limit the enrollment to the better classes of colored people. In one parish several families whose children had been ordered from the school for failure to pay their tuition were visited. They resented their treatment, declaring that they knew of other families whose children were allowed to attend, although they were months behind in their tuition. The pastor defended his action by calling attention to the fact that should children from the "never-do-well" families attend his school, children from the better families would drop out. One of the stock arguments in favor of the parochial school used by many priests was that the children in it did not have to sit next to "negroes, foreigners, and dirty, lousy children."

While no figures are available showing the amount received from tuition, a careful estimate arrived at by multiplying the rate of tuition in each school by the pupils enrolled, shows an income from this source of \$1,317,874. Since the total expense of the elementary schools of the Catholic Church in Chicago is \$3,638,480, the income derived from tuition was \$2,320,606 less than the total costs of the system. This annual deficit is one of the most serious problems which the Roman Catholic Church faces in Chicago. Attempts to solve the difficulty by raising the tuition will further reduce the efficiency of the schools by limiting the enrollment to smaller numbers. Thus far the most practicable solution for meeting this annual deficit is by means of freewill offerings from the members. By this means practically all of the \$2,320,606 is raised each year.

Where the local parish was unable to meet its deficit aid was sometimes secured from the diocese. But in these cases the deficit was really met by freewill contributions, the stronger parishes assisting the weaker by assuming part of the financial burden. The income from endowments, from the sale of articles, and from collections taken weekly from the children are so small as to be negligible. It is, therefore, correct to assume that the Roman Catholic Church in Chicago raised approximately 36 per cent of the expense of its elementary schools by tuition and 64 per cent by freewill offerings taken up in each parish.

(To be continued in a later number)

UNITED STATES HISTORY CONTRIBUTIONS TO PROJECTS IN HEALTH EDUCATION¹

MARY MORIARTY

American history as it will be written years hence will not be the history as we know it today. This does not mean that it will be written from a purely economic standpoint; that it will deal mainly with Eli Whitney, McCormick, Adams Express Company, and the sewing machine, and will refer briefly to the Battle of Gettysburg in a footnote. Surely, however, there will be a readjustment of viewpoint, and American history will contain more useful material and give due recognition to some of our great achievements and contributions other than those purely political and constitutional.

In examining the most recent texts in this field one might reasonably expect to discover evidences of a changing viewpoint in American history other than that held at the beginning of this century. Some recognition of health relationships might be revealed. In a study of these texts, however, little of such valuable and available material as would contribute to more efficient living today has been utilized. This paper, therefore, deals mainly with suggestions as to the possible contributions of American history to health education. No attempt has been made to consider the almost unlimited wealth of material found in the backgrounds of our history.

Of fourteen most recent texts studied, no text was found which gave the reason for the spices of the East being so eagerly sought by the peoples of Europe. Refrigeration, as we know it today, was not practised; the various methods by which food was preserved by ancient peoples might be investigated and compared with those of the

¹Edited by Ira M. Gast.

present day, including how refrigeration by ice or low temperature came into use.

Period of Exploration. During the period of exploration death by sickness from lack of adaptation to new and strange conditions and from many communicable diseases took an immense toll. Had De Soto lived in 1928 what health knowledge might have aided him and his followers? Our histories usually reveal little more than that De Soto died and was secretly buried at midnight in the muddy waters of the Mississippi.

What health knowledge will Mr. Ford's representatives take with them into the jungles of South America? Against what diseases might the early explorers have been immunized? How might Ponce de Leon have discovered a real fountain of youth?

Period of Colonization. The period of colonization is characterized by hardships, poor living conditions, severe winters, insufficient clothing and shelter, disease, and death. Why not study the advantages of Jamestown as a place for people to live at that time; its climate and elevation?

When the Pilgrims first landed at Plymouth Rock, they had no cows or goats with them. These were imported later from Holland to supply one cow and two goats to every six people.² It would be interesting to learn how cow's milk was discovered as a food and how we learned to milk the cow. In what respects were the Quakers better equipped for health than the settlers of Plymouth?³ How is milk procured in the Panama Canal Zone where it is difficult to herd cows? In which of the colonies—Jamestown, Plymouth, Salem, Providence, or Pennsylvania would you have preferred to live? Why?

Indian Life. Indians ate game, fish, wild berries, fruits, and edible roots. Some of the tribes cultivated patches of

²Turner and Collins, *Community Health*, p. 51, 1928.

³Burnham, *The Making of Our Country*, p. 37, 1926.

corn, beans, and squashes. They possessed no domestic animals except the dog. What important food was absent from their diet? Discuss the home life of the Indian child—its advantages and disadvantages; an Indian boy's lessons; the lessons of an Indian girl; occupations of men and women; and Hiawatha's childhood.

Growth of Industries. On colonial farms, which grains, vegetables, fruits, and plants were native and which were imported? All our common farm animals except the turkey were unknown to the western continent until the coming of the white man. Projects growing out of the study of this period might include farm machinery in colonial days, colonial crops, and a colonial child's clothing.

The lack of money made it difficult to enter upon commercial pursuits. The settlers would trade a coat for a pair of shoes, or a cow for a horse. The children might prepare and present a play in which a New England mother prevails upon the father not to trade the cow for a horse; the children of the family entering their appeals in favor of keeping the cow, and giving their reasons.

Salem Witchcraft. In connection with Salem witchcraft more modern superstitions might be studied, such as (1) that certain diseases run in families; (2) that children must have measles, chickenpox, mumps, etc., and the sooner they get them "over with" the better; (3) that defective eyes grow weaker when glasses are worn; (4) that styes and warts may be "charmed away"; (5) that children outgrow physical defects; (6) that thirteen at a table is unlucky; and (7) that windows should be kept closed at night to keep out the "night air."

Homes of Early Settlers. At first many of the colonists took refuge in caves dug in the river bank or in wigwams like those of the Indian. The first log cabins should be studied with reference to sleeping quarters, the trundle

bed, where the older children slept, and how these cabins were heated and lighted.

A Colonial School. Some of these schools had dirt floors which readily became very dusty. Some unruly pupils would purposely stir up clouds of dust to annoy the master and disturb the school. Such a school should be contrasted with our modern school buildings.

French and Indian War. In this connection may be described with their health implications the boyhood, home, early training, and out-of-door life of George Washington. But all the battles for social progress have not been fought by "blood and steel." General Wolfe was handicapped by poor health, but resolutely made the most of his life and abilities. On the dark waters of the St. Lawrence while his soldiers rowed with muffled oars the night preceding the battle of Quebec, Wolfe recited Gray's *Elegy*. He said that he would rather have written the elegy than take Quebec.

Territorial Changes. The names of Daniel Boone, Kit Carson, and James Robertson, in the settlement of the Ohio Valley, are dear to the heart of childhood. Colonial life is sharply contrasted with that of the present because of its dangers and hardships. Today we have comforts of modern living, overheated homes, inadequate exercise, too little time spent in the open air, and too many delicacies.

The Revolutionary Period. The ideals of citizenship, self-sacrifice, self-reliance, and rugged health made possible tremendous achievement which would have been quite impossible with our habits, practices, and living conditions of today.

The Young Republic. The usual modern school history does not refer to health habits and practices at the dawn of our nation. Textbook authors seem not to consider such problems important in the study of national affairs. The

untimely death of Washington was due to his having been bled by his physician as a remedy for a severe cold. Similar practices are revealed in a study of the Lewis and Clark expedition, 1804-1806.

The earlier inventions and changed practices were closely related to health and living conditions. Among these are (1) Crompton's spinning mule (1779); (2) Watt's steam engine (1781); (3) smelting furnaces (1790); (4) Whitney's cotton gin (1793); (5) Fulton's Folly (1807); (6) the use of coal for fuel (1812); and (7) the opening of the Erie Canal (1817). What were the health hazards of the old and of the newer forms of industry? What are the hazards of today?

Discovery of Gold in California. Our westward expansion, the migration of the Mormons, and the discovery of gold in California were all attended with tremendous human sacrifice. Gordy⁴ states that four thousand died from cholera during the first year after the discovery of gold; and many more from lack of suitable food. In some cases men were obliged to kill their mules for food; sometimes they lived on rattlesnakes. In their frantic desire to reach the diggings people would not always stop to bury their dead.

A little girl making the journey, wrote in her diary, "I have learned to eat and drink many strange things. Don't you think I shall do for a new country?" Would a child who refuses to eat wholesome food, who selects food according to likes or dislikes be likely to survive in a new country?

Period of the Civil War. The boyhood and early training of Lincoln and other leaders during this period contributed much to the success of our nation. Many health hazards confronted both whites and slaves. Their living

⁴Gordy, *Elementary History of the United States*, p. 237.

quarters were often very comfortable; others were entirely inadequate. Slaves were necessarily fed at the smallest possible expense, mainly on corn meal and pork. The weekly allowance of food on one Virginia plantation was one and one-half pounds of corn meal, three pounds of bacon and a little salt per individual. A Mississippi planter gave each slave a peck of meal, three pounds of pork, and one quart of molasses. Had you been a Southern planter owning a hundred slaves, what diet would you have selected for them in order that they might do a greater amount of work?

During the Civil War the exposure and hardships of army life resulted in much sickness and many deaths. The prisoners of both the North and South suffered great privation. Many of them perished. The wounded were cared for as well as possible but the surgeons of that time had not yet learned the use of antiseptics. The Confederate hospitals were especially in need of medicines and other supplies. Two northern societies, the Sanitary Commission and the Christian Commission aided in caring for the sick and wounded. What agencies in our time would aid in such emergencies?

Among suggested projects may be mentioned life of the soldier during the Civil War as compared with that in the World War. Burnham states that the American Army with a daily average of 742,000 men assembled in many camps, had but 119 cases of typhoid in a period of five months. After inoculation there were but ten cases in four months among nearly a million men.

The advantages to health and prosperity resulting from the Civil War would, especially in the South, include (1) smaller and more prosperous farms; (2) more diversified crops; (3) more domestic animals; and (4) new developments in farm machinery.

Development of the Nation. Among the great achievements and developments tending to improve living conditions we may mention the following:

First municipal water supply, New York City.....	1831
Invention of the reaper.....	1840
Invention of the telegraph.....	1844
Anæsthesia first used	1846
Massachusetts Sanitary Commission.....	1850
Massachusetts State Board of Health.....	1869
American Public Health Association.....	1872
Telephone projected	1876
Trudeau Tuberculosis Sanitarium established.....	1884
First wireless message sent across the English Channel..	1899
First sanitary water supply.....	1904
Pasteurization of milk began.....	1907
Wrapping of bread began.....	1914

Spanish American War. With the outbreak of the war with Spain, the United States was confronted with many serious health problems. The war in itself was not significant, but it provided opportunities for tremendous achievement by the United States. Through our occupation of Cuba we were compelled to study the sources and treatment of yellow fever. These lessons were applied in the Panama Canal Zone and made possible the canal itself. Had it not been for our war with Spain the Panama Canal would not have been completed until a much later date. Yet our histories usually refer only to military operations as if these were the important achievements of this nation.

The World War. Through each of these critical periods tremendous achievements were made possible for the betterment of mankind. The emphasis upon health education today has been promoted by the discoveries and lessons derived from the drafting of men for the World War. We had made great strides in medicine, surgery, and sanitation which rendered possible the saving of vast numbers of people. Political and constitutional history may be studied as found necessary; but the economic features of our history should no longer be ignored.

Our child labor and immigration laws should be studied from the standpoint of human welfare. Humanity is benefited by our emphasis upon the physical fitness of the immigrant. The development of the automobile has presented many problems of human relationship. It has changed the structure of society throughout this country and abroad. Its significance should receive due emphasis.

Traditional history has mentioned only the great military and political leaders. Why not include the following:

Florence Nightingale, England's founder of the first training school for nurses.

Clara Barton, the founder of the American Red Cross.

Louis Pasteur, the discoverer of disease germs.

Joseph Lister, the father of modern surgery.

General William E. Gorgas, the sanitary engineer of the Panama Canal Zone.

Dr. Walter Reed, who helped to discover the origin and transmission of yellow fever.

Dr. Lazear, who sacrificed his life for the cause of health in Cuba.

Dr. Edward L. Trudeau, who developed methods of treatment of tuberculosis.

Thomas A. Edison, for his contributions to comfort and health.

Henry Ford, as a great industrial organizer.

Charles A. Lindbergh, for bringing the people of the world closer together and promoting an attitude of fellowship.

CURRICULUM BUILDING AND THE NEW SOCIAL SCIENCES

GUY V. PRICE

Coöperation has been emphasized as a new watchword and countersign in industrial and international affairs. In education, a depressing fact has been the lack of coöperation. Of textbooks written by university specialists for some indiscriminate assortment of students and readers we have had quite enough. On one side it has been felt that the primary element was thorough knowledge of the subject taught, but in practice it has been found that the materials must be tested in the light of the learning capacities and experiences of the children themselves. The old fallacy of emphasis on method independent of knowledge has yielded to the conviction that the teacher and the specialist must be brought into closer understanding.

The movement for curriculum revision, which has now become acute in many cities, may be said to have entered its scientific phase when Professor Franklin Bobbitt began, about a decade ago, to give courses on the curriculum in the University of Chicago. Curriculum construction is an accepted part of school administration in most progressive cities. The movement has affected the elementary, junior, and senior high schools. Colleges and universities have taken up the problem. No phase of education has escaped. The two main reasons for this revision are the dynamic character of American civilization and the developing social sciences, including education as one of the social sciences. The schools and some other institutions of social control are trying to secure that place of leadership in the community which thoughtful people think they deserve. The essays by Professor W. H. Kilpatrick on "Education for a Changing Civilization" secured some attention from professional educators, not conversant with the concepts

of social science, to the necessity of adjusting education to changes which are rapidly occurring in American life. It is now realized that a study of American life is preliminary to a validation of the work of the schools, and that we cannot determine what kind of schools we want until we can envisage the direction of social evolution. The necessity for more accurate knowledge of contemporary civilization was repeatedly stressed in the joint statement of the Committee on the National Society for the Study of Education on "Foundations of Curriculum Making" and also by supplementary statements of individual members of the committee. Of these statements the following are illustrative.

In establishing the relative importance of proposed materials of instruction . . . the curriculum-maker is compelled to decide what use he shall make of the present needs, interests, and activities of children on one hand and also of the results accruing from the scientific study of society on the other. . . .

To validate any experience for any particular time, both the child interest and social value in the control of behavior should be used as tests. . . .

Learning takes place most effectively and economically in the matrix of a situation which grips the learner, which is to him vital—worth while. . . .

In curriculum making attention should be given to the interests, needs, and activities of child life and of adult society. . . . The curriculum-maker must become a student both of the child and of society and the accumulating experience of the race. . . .

Because other agencies—such as the typical American home, the press, the church, the platform—cannot exert an adequate educational influence for social improvement, it is imperative that the systematic curriculum of our schools shall consider definitely the problems, economic, political, social, and individual. . . . It is of increasing moment that our educational agencies be organized for the task of bringing children to a progressive understanding of their responsibility for social progress and of the problems, practices, and institutions of social life.¹

To furnish educative materials for such a conception of education is both a challenge and an opportunity for the

¹"Foundations of Curriculum Making," Part II, *Twenty-sixth Year Book of National Society for the Study of Education*.

teachers and workers in the social sciences. For years teachers of history have contended that one value of history was to give a better understanding of the present. They are now challenged to demonstrate the merits of their claims. While the social studies have existed in some form since the days of the Greeks, the relative immaturity of these studies as science requires that in many cases the teacher must emphasize scientific procedure rather than rely on the suggested laws of the sciences. Science is one of the great passions of our age and rightly interpreted it becomes a solvent for some social problems. Right now it is perhaps better to emphasize knowledge than reform. Facts, as Lord Bryce said, are the great need of democracies. Knowledge may not guarantee right conduct, but it is a preliminary condition of social conduct in a complex world. Only understanding transforms. A problem loses its baffling nature the moment it is understood. Life in the modern world, as Alfred North Whitehead has said, cannot be disjoined from intellectual adventure.

Does modern social science afford the sort of intellectual adventure and understanding that will furnish us with a guide to sane social behavior? The answer to that question demands a good deal of familiarity with the sciences themselves. The social sciences embrace history, political science, economics, sociology, anthropology and their interrelations.² Others would add the related fields of social psychology, ethics, cultural geography, and some phases of biology. A few books which afford an introduction to the leading concepts of social science would include Hayes, *Recent Developments of the Social Sciences*; Ogburn and Goldenweiser, *The Social Sciences and Their Interrelations*; Sorokin, *Contemporary Sociological Theories*; Ellwood, *Cultural Evolution*; Schlesinger-Fox, *A History of American Life*; Merriam, *New Aspects of the Study of Politics*;

²This list given by Ogburn and Goldenweiser, *The Social Sciences*, 1927.

Dawson, *Teaching the Social Studies*; Smith, *North America*; Barnes, *History and Prospects of the Social Sciences*; Bossard, *Problems of Social Well-Being*; Judd, *Psychology of Social Institutions*; Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*; Cheney, *Law in History and Other Essays*; Smith, *The Democratic Way of Life*; Dewey, *The Public and Its Problems*; MacIver, *The State*; Chapin, *Cultural Change*, and many other books and articles. The materials are at hand for an investigation of the applicability of newer concepts of social science to curriculum construction. The courses of study exist in great proliferation so that they may be tested for the inclusion of principles of these sciences.

Science seems to alternate between specialization and synthesis. Problems are means of unifying the sciences. A real live problem, crime for instance, cuts across the formal boundaries. "The problem of poverty, for example, is related to biology because of a possible hereditary factor. It also falls into the domain of psychology, for many cases of destitution are neurotic. Economics contributes to the solution, for the distribution of wealth is a factor in poverty. Sociology is related to the problem through population, migration, birth control, city housing, pensions, and public health."⁸

One idea seems to run throughout the whole range of social study and that is the concept of change and development. Professor Cheyney gives it as one of the laws of history and the July issue of the *American Journal of Sociology* (1928), is devoted entirely to a survey of the social changes in America during 1927. Change is the law of life of our civilization. "Modern material culture has completely altered practically every phase of human life. No other transition in the history of humanity can be compared to the multifarious effects of the scientific and industrial revolution which has taken place since 1750. It is

⁸Ogburn and Goldenweiser, p. 8.

still going on in a more striking and ominous degree than at any time in the last two centuries."⁴ Inventions were relatively infrequent prior to the eighteenth century. Lord Francis Bacon could think of three in the years preceding the seventeenth century, printing, gunpowder, and the compass, which he thought had done more to revolutionize life than all other influences. Now we have become so accustomed to the occurrence of epoch-making discoveries and inventions that only the most striking secure attention. Inventions and discoveries are undoubtedly a great factor in making our civilization dynamic and because of the improved state of technology the increase of inventions is inevitable.

This enormous change in material culture has raised the question of whether in the nonmaterial phases of life a corresponding increase has been made. Thus Dr. John Bassett Moore, a philosophical jurist of international fame, commenting on the radio said, "The development and accumulation of scientific discoveries, and of inventions that quicken locomotion and the dissemination of sound, bear no intrinsic relation to the progress of mankind in spiritual things, and that, so far as they minister to mistaken assumptions of moral or intellectual superiority, their effect may even be harmful." This is no doubt a very widespread conviction. It has given currency to the conception of "cultural lag," but it is rather the problem of social advance—that of bringing the institutions of control into adjustment with the new conditions—which the inventions and discoveries have necessitated.

A very important result of the Industrial Revolution and associated changes has been the increased range of knowledge possessed by the average citizen, due to the rise of free public education, of the expansion of collegiate education, and the growth of the press. Up until the middle of the nineteenth century the mass of citizens, except

⁴H. E. Barnes, *History and Social Intelligence*, p. 572.

in such communities as Athens or Rome, the overwhelming number of citizens were illiterate. The information they possessed related to the ordinary processes of life, the superstitions and traditions of the locality. The growth of culture makes necessary a similar growth in education. It is not commonly appreciated how abstract are the facts of modern life. As a rule the facts or events of contemporary life do not take place in such a form that they can be known. They must be given shape by somebody, usually the press agent. How to make the newspaper serve more effectively the requirements of social intelligence is a primary problem.⁵ If democracy is to succeed under the new conditions it will be because of greater social understanding. Those who accept the Turnerian conception of American history, the influence of free lands and the frontier, are inclined to doubt the possibility of democracy under urban industrial concentration. The only hope of making democracy effective is through education broadly conceived. The steady expansion of educational opportunity in America is the best proof that our people still have faith in democracy. The usual approach to the question of how much education is needed ignores the social problem. The question of how much arithmetic is needed cannot be answered by the needs of the market place, but by a study of the need for quantitative thinking about social relations. The census reports on population, figures on the extent of American investments abroad, the expenses of the Federal Government are not appreciated because of so little training in quantitative thinking. Increasingly, however, welfare depends on the sanity of men living in social groups, whether in apartments, corporations, churches, political parties, or national states. No doubt if teachers could realize as Dr. C. H. Judd has emphasized, that the subjects in the curriculum grew out of the necessities of social existence they would appear less abstract.⁶ There is no subject

⁵G. V. Price, "Newspaper as an Aid in Social Analysis," *Education*, May, 1928.

⁶Judd, *The Psychology of Social Institutions*, New York, 1926.

but that it should be taught historically in the light of social development. We speak scornfully of mere words but through them nearly the whole process of communication takes place. An old grammar defines a word as a sign of an idea and may be oral or written, but students memorized that without having a sign of an idea. Language is a bearer of social experience and words have come down through long ages freighted with meaning. The abstract nature of arithmetic would be modified if teachers would study it historically.

Social psychology has contributions to make to the curriculum. It is realized that satisfactory social training is one of the greatest needs of the times. Charles Horton Cooley, the patron saint of the social psychologists, has emphasized the place of the primary groups, the home, the face-to-face contacts, as bearers of social value and experience. In these primary groups the individual builds up the habits of coöperation; they furnish the social patterns. Social life is essentially mental. Communication, sympathy, and discussion are the fundamental forms of association. Consequently, "the educational sociologist conceives the school as a coördinating agency in the development of controls of behavior. . . . Educational sociology is the application of the sociological method and technique to the problems of collective behavior which cluster about the school—the analysis of the social situation from which the child comes to school and to which he must adjust. . . . It is not limited to a consideration of objectives, but includes a consideration of subject matter and activities of the school."⁷

The concept of culture has been developed by Dr. Clark Wissler and Dr. C. A. Ellwood, among other writers. Culture includes the whole social environment of speech, material traits, art, science, war, family and social systems,

⁷E. George Payne, "Educational Sociology." Publications of the American Sociological Society, XXI, 1927.

property, government, religious and ethical codes. It varies widely and is under the law of evolutionary change. Cultural changes are affecting the family and the position of women. The question of which is more important in the life of the individual, the social and physical environment, or the hereditary mental endowment of the individual, has been approached from a variety of angles. Both are significant. The contributors to the Twenty-eighth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education dealt with "Nature" and "Nurture" and "Their Influence Upon Achievement and Upon Intelligence." Professor F. N. Freeman found that "The chief difficulty which has been encountered in investigations has been that of isolating environment from inherited capacity. . . . When differences in environment and differences in heredity are associated it is impossible to determine which is the cause and which is the effect."⁸ His studies do show clearly, however, that environment does have an influence on intelligence and conduct. Apparently, the contributors were unwilling to resolve their difficulties in the manner suggested by L. L. Bernard, of making heredity a subhead under environment. In the long run environment alters heredity. The biological traits of the American people, for instance, have been affected by our immigration policy. As conceived by Bernard, environment is a much wider term than heredity and includes (1) *the physical environments*, the soil, climate, and natural resources; (2) *the biologic or organic environment*, the microorganisms, parasites, the larger plants and animals; (3) *the social environment*, which he divides as *physicosocial*, such as tools, transportation, scientific appliances, the *biosocial*, embracing the family, neighborhood groups, and the *psychosocial* based on the individuals who carry culture, collective behavior, tradition, folkways, uniformities of custom and language. The fourth division of environments is made up of *composite* or

⁸Twenty-eighth Year Book, Part I, p. 105.

derivative features centering in control, such as government.⁹

With this perspective any book on society which limited reform to eugenics would be unrepresentative of the teachings of the majority of social scientists. The concept of culture is yet to be worked out adequately in world history textbooks. The usual book on world history gives a chronicle of separate national states but does not indicate the interdependence, contact and contamination of cultures. But most social scientists would doubtless concur in the statement that "Intellectual development is not the product of one race, still less of one society alone. It is a tradition handed on with successive improvements from one civilization to another, and that is why it shows a nearly continuous advance."¹⁰

The progress of American history interests a great number of people because "every individual interest of future citizens and every vital interest of . . . social life demands something better in the way of teaching history than boys and girls . . . are now getting."¹¹ In the last twenty years American historiography has witnessed increasing attention to the "New History"; a more general acceptance that American history in many respects cannot be isolated from world history; a constant multiplying of monographs dealing with various phases of the social, political, and cultural development of the American people; and by a continued effort to paint a synthetic picture of American life. The four volumes which have so far appeared, of the contemplated set of twelve volumes on the *History of American Life*, edited by Schlesinger and Fox, are packed with information. Local history plays a considerable rôle, but not from the angle of the curious or antiquarian interest. Party strife is subordinated. Fundamental matters, such as the broadening of the suffrage, the democratizing of po-

⁹Ogburn and Goldenweiser, *The Social Sciences*, pp. 353-355.

¹⁰L. T. Hobbhouse, *Morals in Evolution*, p. 42.

¹¹M. E. Haggerty, "Educational Achievement." *Rural School Survey of New York State*, p. 180.

litical control, humanitarian reforms, ways of living, and the broadening of culture, receive due attention. Twenty years ago the appearance of the *American Nation* series marked the climax of broad-minded constitutional and political history. Since that time the *Chronicles of America*, *The Pageant of America*, and the *History of American life*, together with many good texts and monographs, have given to the curriculum maker substantive material for remaking the history courses in the schools. Political influences, such as typified by the Thompson régime in Chicago, still embarrass educators, but the publication of so much new material makes almost inevitable some improvement and enrichment. Materials are at hand for a reconstruction of the European, world and modern history courses. The six volumes of the *Cambridge Ancient History* summarizes research in that field. The story of Athens as revealed in these writings culminates in one of the most awful cultural crashes in history, of a high civilization going over the embankment because politicians at the wheel enjoyed skidding. Rostovtzeff in his new but already widely quoted volume on *Rome*, attacks again the causes of Roman decadence, the social and intellectual conditions, the atmosphere of crime and guilt surrounding the Roman emperors, the indifference to intellectual achievement, and the lack of courage to face the problems of the day. Preserved Smith, in *The Age of the Reformation*, gives in many respects a devastating account of the progress of the Reformation but concludes that it was distinctly a forward movement. Abbott's *Expansion of Europe* has doubtless inspired many teachers to consider as more important the conditions which admitted America to world civilization.

Political science, as a science, is in a hesitant mood, apparently divided between the adherents of the newer views championed by Professor Charles E. Merriam, who has advocated the studying of psychology, economics, statistics, sociology, and even anthropology, and those who

still restrict themselves to more formal governmental matters. The lines of development of the science as sketched by Merriam have been:

1. The *a priori* and deductive method down to about 1850.
2. The historical and comparative method, 1850-1900.
3. The present tendency towards observation, survey, and measurement—1900.
4. The beginnings of the psychological movement in politics.¹²

The Modern State, by R. M. MacIver, may be selected as typical of the newer emphasis on the functional aspects of the state and the recognition of the newer ideas of social value. He gives the state a preëminent position among other organs of control because "It creates rights, not as the lordly dispenser of gifts, but as the agent of society for the relation of rights. The servant is not greater than his master. As other rights are relative to function and are recognized as limited by it, so, too, the rights of the State should be." He comes back finally to the individual, and the function of the state is the fulfillment of personality. His writings like those of many contemporary English writers centers the effort on reconciling individual freedom with needs of society.¹³

As a contributor to political philosophy and as a practical leader none have been more significant than Woodrow Wilson. In his "New Freedom," he stated the conditions which the new democracy would have to meet. "Yesterday," he said, "and ever since history began, men were related to one another as individuals. . . . Today, the everyday relationships are largely with great impersonal concerns, with organizations, not with other individuals. Now this is nothing short of a new social age, a new age of human relationships, a new stage setting for the drama of life." Earlier associations were, as Cooley said, of the face-to-face type. The new conditions create greater problems for government and the effort of practical leaders as

¹²Charles E. Merriam, article on Politics, in Hayes, *Recent Development of the Social Sciences*, 1927.

¹³Lewis Rockow, *Contemporary Political Thought in England*, p. 210.

well as political scientists is absorbed in finding new means of meeting the problems which have been thrust upon government.

The range of economic concepts and analyses has greatly broadened. Among them, business cycle, industrial fluctuations, welfare, taxation canons, production, the rôle of money, insurance, risk, speculation, economic incentives, wastes in industry, social control, the acquisitive society, tariffs and dumping, trade, radicalism and conservatism, thrift, savings, investments, profits, value, distribution, credit institutions, *laissez-faire*, economic laws, supply and demand, are familiar. It has been thought that economics was too abstract a science to be taught below the senior year of the high school, and some would leave it until the second year of college, but there are certain phases of economic life which can be introduced into the elementary grades, among them are thrift, taxes, trade, and industrial growth.

But Professor W. H. Burton found that teachers frequently assume too much knowledge on the part of students. The Oklahoma City course of study, vocational civics for the seventh grade, suggests that students acquire an understanding of such terms as vocational guidance, vocational adjustments, collective bargaining, division of labor and occupation. Professor Burton found that 55 per cent of certain classes of sixth-grade children answered correctly, what is "blind alley job," but on an interview nearly everyone was found to be ignorant of any real knowledge of the term. Vocational education was defined by some as a form of music, deriving it from vocal music.¹⁴ Considerations of this sort require that emphasis be placed on general facts of the main industries, agriculture, manufacturing, machine trades, building trades, transportation, commercial occupations, civil service, engineering profes-

¹⁴W. H. Burton, an unpublished doctor's dissertation, *Nature and Amount of Civic Information Possessed by Chicago Children*, University of Chicago, 1924, p. 73.

sions, home making, rather than that of vocational guidance and decision.

The St. Louis, Missouri, course of study, social science, like that of Oklahoma, Denver, and many other cities, illustrates the amount of effort and research requisite in overhauling a course of study. The usual studies of the curriculum committees are first, to read the books on educational objectives and methods of curriculum construction, then read some of the textbooks in the field, and if there is time, approach the original works of contributors in the subject matter fields. This last stage is rarely ever reached. The St. Louis committee states that the aim of the social sciences in the first six grades is "the teaching of concepts or principles derived from geography, history, civics, or relationships between human activities and earth conditions." This apparently indicates a recognition of the rôle of environment stressed by Bernard. The more general objectives for the social studies accepted by the committee were to enable the student to participate effectively in promoting the welfare of society, to have a sense of world community, of one's relations as a member of a social group, of the relation of the past to the present, and the ability to properly interpret social conditions.

The Denver course of study, social science, senior high school, was worked out along the lines of history syllabi and appears to be an exceptionally good piece of work. History forms the backbone of the course and there is no admission of sociology and economics as such. *American Problems* is the place where social and economic matters are considered. In preparing the list the committee obviously had in mind the selection of problems on the basis of comparative importance rather than unity in the series. Likewise the Oklahoma course for grade IX, a set of problems includes Latin-America and a study of vocations. The State of Missouri course of study for junior and senior high schools (1928), has a long list of problems for the

course in problems of American democracy. The problems are social, civic, and economic. The Missouri list follows: Education in American Democracy, The Problem of the Family, Immigration, Negro, Crime, Poverty and Dependence, Religion, The Farm Problem, City Problem, Unemployment, Conservation of Resources, Trusts and Large Scale Production, Transportation, Communication and World Commerce, Exchange and Banking, Distribution of Wealth, Public Opinion and the Press, Organization of the Federal Government, Work of the State Government, International Relations and World Peace. Truly a formidable list. The list will be tested out in many of the smaller high schools of the State, but both reason and experience seem to confirm the opinion of Professor R. M. Tryon who maintains that while we need citizens who understand these problems it is better to select a group as economic and concentrate on them. Political understanding will be developed by training in political science, and if we wish people to be able to think sociologically, train them for a consecutive period in sociology.¹⁵

The appropriateness of conceiving the social studies as a set of problems is still in doubt. Some insist that the studies should, if possible, be approached from the angle of principles or laws. But if the problem method is to be used it seems preferable to concentrate attention on a group of problems, in a given field. Problems of a distinctly sociological character would include the unstable family, child welfare, poverty, the control of disease, growth of population, race, and immigration, crime, mental hygiene, and problems of peace. The unity of the human career, however, must never be ignored.

Some study of the new curricula leads to the reflection that the committees on revision, in some cases, are perhaps too ambitious and make the courses too detailed. Each new committee, building to some extent on the work of previous

¹⁵"History and Other Social Studies in Junior and Senior High Schools," *Historical Outlook*, May, 1926. A different point of view has been advocated by Professor Harold Rugg.

ones, adds a few more details or makes the list of objectives more specific. Activities form a fruitful field of development which may yield a new approach to education.¹⁶ In this new array of materials social vision is needed. It is believed that the new social science furnishes at least some of the vision needed. With the sweeping vision of social science one may envisage the development of society, coming more within the scope of organizing intelligence, and, thereby, more and more removed from blind chance and the sport of demagogues. The further growth of social self-consciousness and of social control will be gradual and probably attended with many setbacks, but it is surely the function of teachers to make social intelligence more effective. As it increases its area of operation it will be more difficult for the pronouncement of politicians and half-educated industrialists to pass for the last word in statesmanship.

Even an elementary survey of the present school situation reveals a renaissance of interest in the place that the social studies shall occupy in the curriculum. It is a challenge to teachers of social science, to school administrators, and the general public. The American faith in education runs deep and has as its distinguishing trait, equality of opportunity. To validate that faith should be an aspiration of all who utilize the newer social science for the new curricula.

¹⁶Adolphe Ferriere, *The Activity School*, New York, 1928, translated by Moore and Wooton.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house (1) for information about current research projects of interest to educational sociology and (2) for ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field.*

Readers are urged to report their own projects and to submit information regarding other projects of which they have knowledge. Suggestions as to methods of research will be welcomed and will be given publicity in this department. Specimen questionnaires and plans for research in educational sociology will be given careful criticism if desired.

From time to time this department will also make its readers acquainted with research resources in educational sociology. Contributions of this type from readers will also be welcomed.

It is desirable to make the program of research in educational sociology a coöperative one. To this end the names and addresses of those engaged upon research projects will usually be given in order that readers may exchange with them ideas upon related projects.

NEW REPORTS OF RESEARCH IN PROGRESS

We are interested to note that Professor J. M. Gillette, president of the American Sociological Society for 1928, has announced that the *American Journal of Sociology* is to introduce this year a new department on Reports of Research in Progress.

STUDY OF CONDUCT HABITS OF BOY SCOUTS

About a year and a half ago, the National Council of the Boy Scouts of America decided that the time had come to check up definitely on their own activities to determine to what extent the Scout Movement is attaining its major objective of developing socially useful character traits in the boys who come under its influence. It was unanimously agreed that such a study must be thoroughly scientific, objective, and unbiased. This meant that the study itself must be completely detached from any Scout influence. In accordance with this principle, Professor Henry P. Fair-

child, of New York University, was requested to take the direction and full responsibility of the study. Funds were secured to provide for the employment of a competent staff and for necessary expenses. All the executives of the Scout Organization were authorized to coöperate fully with the agents of the study in the way of supplying information and other services as desired, but no participation in the study itself by such executives was contemplated.

In accordance with this plan, about ten communities, distributed over the country, have been selected at random as samples of Scout activity. In each of these communities a twofold plan of inquiry is being carried out.

1. A purely statistical study is being made based on the Juvenile Court Records to determine the relative frequency of delinquency among Scouts and non-Scouts;

2. A personal study is being made of about one hundred boys in each community, divided into four groups, approximately twenty-five in each, as follows:

- a. Scouts with a delinquency record
- b. Non-Scouts with a delinquency record
- c. Scouts without a delinquency record
- d. Non-Scouts without a delinquency record.

In the compilation of the data thus secured, a uniform schedule is being used which will serve as a basis for the final tabulations and statistical comparisons. The final conclusions as to the influence of the Scout factor on character development will be based partly upon the showing of these schedules and partly upon the intimate knowledge of the boys' characters acquired by the workers in the course of their studies. Every effort is being made to provide for the necessary allowances on account of any difference in the hereditary or environmental situations which may be discovered to exist between Scouts and non-Scouts.

The workers have been mainly recruited from the graduate schools of strategically located universities with the

courteous coöperation of teachers in those Universities. In addition to the director, there is one full-time experienced social worker on the staff and one or two professional workers giving full time for limited periods.

Since the purpose of the study is to furnish data to the Scout organization itself which will serve as a basis for either the reinforcement of present methods and policies, or the adoption of promising modifications, it has not, as yet, been definitely decided whether the report or any portions of it, will be printed. The spirit of the enterprise guarantees that any partial report that may be printed will be strictly representative of the whole.

A RESEARCH BULLETIN IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

The department of commercial education of the New York University School of Education proposes to issue a series of bulletins in which significant research studies in commercial education that are being made at New York University will be reported. The idea of a research bulletin was developed as a result of a need felt among students, commercial teachers, supervisors, and administrators of sharing their mutual efforts for the further improvement of commercial education through research studies.

The bulletins will be issued quarterly under the editorship of Dr. Herbert Tonne. Forty-six studies already under way in the field of commercial education will be reported. The purposes of the bulletin are as follows: (1) to present the conclusions of researches that prove valuable to commercial teachers, supervisors, and administrators, and (2) to give examples of various types of research studies to aid and encourage further research.

PHI DELTA KAPPA AND RESEARCH

Phi Delta Kappa is a national professional fraternity in the field of education, with a membership of more than

10,000. In addition to the professional and fraternal aspects, it is also honorary in character. Three ideals motivate the activities of the organization and its membership; namely, research, service, and leadership. The fraternity has thirty-seven active chapters and fourteen alumni chapters distributed throughout the United States. The active chapters are in the leading colleges and universities of graduate rank which maintain schools, colleges, or departments of education of exceptionally high standing. The biennial National Council of the fraternity is the legislative and policy-making body. The administration of the affairs of the organization is in the hands of an executive secretary and under the direction of an executive committee of five members.

The official national organ of Phi Delta Kappa is the *Phi Delta Kappan*, a bimonthly magazine, which has been published since 1915. Since one of the fundamental purposes of the fraternity is research, the magazine gives a large amount of space to reports of research in education, much of which is of interest to sociologists. It publishes articles from time to time on the methods of research, presents accounts of completed research projects, and prints lists of books, theses, and other research undertakings of its members.

BOOK REVIEWS

Extra-Classroom Activities, by RIVERDA A. JORDAN.
Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1928, ix + 302 pages.

This is a good straightforward book about the conventional activities in which boys and girls of elementary and high schools have engaged with varying degrees of success and faculty encouragement for the past half century. After three introductory chapters dealing with "basic principles," classification, and direction and control, there follow brief treatments of entertainments and dramatics, school assembly, school publications, student government organizations, music, societies, and clubs, social organizations, athletics, military drills, and related activities. The book closes with chapters on school finances and extent of participation—guidance, a rather random selection of references, and an appendix, containing several elaborate school constitutions.

The book deals with school problems which face the faculty and administrators of many elementary and secondary schools today as they did the officers of the schools which the reviewer attended from 1888 to 1902. The advice and suggestions given by Dr. Jordan are safe and reasonable; following them will get no young principal into trouble. Teachers and administrators of experience already know most of what this book contains.

If the author is challenged or thrilled by the modern school's efforts to capitalize and universalize student participations in the dynamic social life of the school, he gives little evidence of it in this book. He seems to have little appreciation of the possibilities for executive, æsthetic, athletic, and social expressions which students activities may provide for pupils who are unsuccessful in academic subjects. His emphasis seems always to be on the direction and control, rather than on the positive, enthusiastic, coöperative undertakings in which teachers and pupils are partners and in which selfishness is sublimated in the group's welfare.

Professor Jordan has given us good common sense advice regarding aspects of pupil activities in schools of yesterday. Unfortunately he seems not yet to see the opportunities and problems of the schools of tomorrow.

PHILIP W. L. COX

The Child and the World, by MARGARET NAUMBERG.
New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1928.
xxiv + 328 pages.

This book is a new and stimulating presentation of the progressive tendencies in education. It depicts the work of the Walden School of which the author is founder and now advisory director, and is a cumu-

lative argument for the adoption of the concepts on which this school is founded. The book is very much worth reading, and one who approaches it with an open mind will receive many valuable suggestions from it, however strongly he may react against certain portions of it.

The form of the presentation is the dialogue in which those who are associated with the experimental school meet and converse with various types of school men, teachers, and students, as well as physician and artist. Questions and objections relative to the principles and methods of progressive education are answered. The dialogue form is unsatisfactory and makes the reading of the book somewhat arduous.

The basic psychological principles are generally sound in the sense that the emphasis is placed upon creative activity of the pupils, with the teacher taking her place in the background as a guide, and the school subjects introduced only incidentally. The psychological method which is favored is psychoanalysis, although the author criticizes this school for being too greatly concerned with the abnormal adult, rather than the normal child; with cure rather than prevention. Pupils, teachers, and even parents are psychoanalyzed, and adjustments made in the light of results. Dewey's principle of freedom is carried to a logical application, but in view of the fact that "the individual is more important than society," Dewey's insistence upon the adaptation of the individual to society is regarded as defective.

Many of the sociological principles may be questioned. The author finds justification for this type of education in the social needs of the day. She would stimulate a revolt against the powerful tide of industrialism which is responsible for "the monotonous uniformity of our average American" and the threatened "extinction of individuality," and would favor the development of European or even Oriental types of culture. The lack of initiative is not proved, nor does the author consider the possibility and desirability of America's developing its own type of culture on the basis of essential and inevitable commercial and industrial activities. There is a wholesome emphasis upon character building and "spiritual" values.

Not only does the author make a sweeping arraignment of the social order and the public-school system, in both of which the curse of inertia rules, so that all energy is spent on maintaining old traditions and none is left for creative work, but she sees no hope for the future except in the true experimental school of the present. There appears to be no recognition of the remarkable advances that are being made in public-school programs. That there is much of value in the experimental school of this type is evident; that there are many public schools which evidence as truly a progressive spirit and method as the experimental school is also evident.

A number of exaggerations of statement warn the reader to be cautious. Any one who is acquainted with the facts refuses to believe that the Lincoln School and the Horace Mann School now merely serve the purpose of developing methods and curricula for use in forwarding the

old type of education. In view of the remarkably progressive work of Bird T. Baldwin, Arnold Gesell, and many others, one can hardly accept the statement that none of the universities is interested in making a fundamental study of how children live and grow.

The book would have been more useful if it had dealt in a very concrete way with organization, curriculum, and methods of instruction, with much illustrative material. This is done in the fourteenth dialogue which shows the process of building a play, and this proves very constructive and highly suggestive. What is needed is a clear statement showing how the principles of progressive education may be applied in ordinary public-school conditions. The presentation here given is of little significance to this end.

PAUL V. WEST

Commercial Teaching Problems, by PAUL S. LOMAX. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1928, v + 200 pages.

Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association—First Year Book, Foundations of Commercial Education. New York: Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association, 1928, v + 423 pages.

Bibliographies on Educational Sociology, First Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, 1928, 154 pages.

One of the important signs of educational progress is the amount of literature and activity among groups in the special fields of education. This activity is of rather recent origin. Signs of life are appearing in physical education, music education, art education, and commercial education. Probably the greatest activity is now being witnessed in commercial education. This is not strange because the largest percentage of any group of secondary teachers belongs to the commercial group. They have had to rely very largely for their training upon the work of commercial schools. This is being corrected by departments of commercial education in the schools of education in the various universities and the literature appearing in the field.

Among the books which will attract wide attention among commercial teachers is that by Professor Lomax dealing with commercial-teaching problems. The book is something more than a discussion of commercial-teaching problems for it deals with the foundation of commercial education as well as the problems of teaching. This book ought to have wide use among all students of the problems.

The second book, also in this field, is the first yearbook of the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association with contributions from leading educators and economists. The first contribution to this series represents

a valuable body of literature in the field. This contribution will not only be a stimulus to the further development of the experimental basis for commercial education procedure but to the development of a body of principles basic to the whole problem of commercial education.

The third publication listed is the first yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, which is a bibliography of literature relating to the field of educational sociology and includes a wide list of books, some of which have little bearing upon the field. Although this is the first yearbook it represents the second contribution of the society.

The first was "Sociology in Normal Schools, Teachers Colleges and Universities," a survey prepared by Mr. Lee and published for the St. Louis meeting of the Section on Educational Sociology of the parent body. The bibliography fulfills a coöperative need in the development of an experimental approach to the newly developing science. It will undoubtedly have a wide influence in the future development of the study.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

The Psychology of Personality, by ENGLISH BAGBY. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1928, viii + 236 pages.

The Lure of Superiority, by WATLAND F. VAUGHAN. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1928, ix + 307 pages.

The Psychology of Abnormal People, by JOHN J. B. MORGAN. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1928, ix + 627 pages.

Why We Misbehave, by SAMUEL D. SCHMALHOUSEN. New York: The Macaulay Company, 1928, 313 pages.

About Ourselves, by H. A. OVERSTREET. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1928, 300 pages.

The past decade has witnessed a flood of literature on the unadjusted personality. The psychoanalysts not only gave the impetus to this literature with their then sensational insistence on the rôle of sex maladjustments, but in their emphasis on the psychogenetic origin of the neuroses swung our attention from physiological causations to the individual's behavior in attempting to adjust to group life. Recently more orthodox psychologists have been attempting to restate this point of view in a more sober fashion. Conflict is the central concept of these restatements—an emotional conflict that always reflects a social conflict as the

individual seeks status and recognition in group life, as his impulses run athwart the group's definitions or cultural patterns, or as he lives in two or more groups that give conflicting definitions of the same situations and behavior. Physical discrepancies are significant, not so much in themselves, as in the way in which they condition the individual's group participation and status, the attitudes others take towards him and his conception of himself. Personality maladjustments are not so much biological as social.

The Psychology of Personality ("an analysis of common emotional disorders") starts from the concept of physiological tensions or emotional disturbances. These tensions arise out of unsuccessful social adjustments. In his undirected attempts to resolve these tensions, the individual develops faulty behavior mechanisms—fear, compulsions, inferiority feelings, absurd rationalizations, day-dreaming, hysterical symptoms—which become fixed as personality traits. The analysis is illustrated with considerable clinical material and followed by an interesting discussion of principles of treatment illustrated from the writer's case books.

The Lure of Superiority is a literary presentation of the Adlerian point of view. Out of the infant's actual inferiority grows a drive towards recognition, a will to power. Intelligent approval socializes this drive, helps the individual to organize his impulses and ability, to consolidate his personality. Lack of social approval and repression lead to disabling conflicts, inferiority feelings, inhibitions. The book is not without its interesting and suggestive passages, but the author relies on anecdotes from the fields of art, literature, industry, religion, feminism, and racial traits rather than upon objective and clinical materials to bolster his generalizations.

The Psychology of Abnormal People is organized in orthodox fashion—disorders of sensation, of perception, of association, of memory, of the emotions, of motor coördination, abnormalities of intelligence, personality, sleep and dreams, hysteria, disorders of regression, compensatory disorders, episodic disorders, and mental hygiene. It attempts to tie up behavior disorders with the established facts about brain, sensory organs, and nervous system. But it also regards these same behavior disorders as "errors" of adjustment—wrong, futile, inadequate attempts to meet difficult life situations. The author's scholarship is sound, his point of view well considered, his treatment fresh and interesting. The volume is one of the best in the literature of abnormal psychology.

Why We Misbehave is a jazzed piece of propaganda, written by a disciple of Freud, for an objective, rational attitude towards the problems of sexual adjustment—the whole disguised as a scientific inquiry. The style, from title to postscript, is of the Dorsey school. But the disciple lacks the scholarship and reasoning ability of the master. The book is largely a set of glittering generalities that lead nowhere in particular.

The author displays an enormous knowledge of the titles of books, a superficial knowledge of their contents. His really quite interesting experiments with a "psychosexual inventory" (an adaptation of the Mathews psychoneurotic inventory idea) among university students is completely befuddled by his interpretation of it. The inventory will, however, provide amusing evenings for the so-called intelligentsia who are too high-hat for crossword puzzles or pencil bridge. All in all it is a sorry book—and yet here and there it brilliantly suggests how so-called "abnormal" sex patterns arise out of faulty attempts at social adjustment.

About Ourselves is a frankly popular and literary presentation for the man in the street of the problems of personality adjustment. Part I, "Toward Unreality," deals with unsuccessful adjustments—we build up fictions, we trip in our logic, the ego inflates, we fly into disease, some of us have moods when fears beset. Part II, "Toward Reality," deals with successful adjustments—ears that hear, eyes that see, tongues that talk, getting rid of poisons, he who laughs, the intercreating mind. Containing nothing new, the book is a readable popularization of psychology, one of the better of the attempts to effect a *liaison* between science and common sense.

Principles of Sociology, by RUDOLPH M. BINDER. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1928, xvi + 609 pages.

Dr. Binder has been professor of sociology at New York University for several years, and is the author of several earlier volumes in the general field of sociology. Among these volumes are *Major Social Problems*, *Health and Social Progress*, and *Religion as Man's Completion*.

The reader found *Principles of Sociology* written in a pleasing, engrossing, lucid style. One does not labor through the chapters. The entire presentation is integrated in a scholarly manner through constant reference to the three major theses of the volume. These theses are: (1) the individual is unique, (2) the unique individual seeks completion, and (3) such completion is socially determined and therefore possible only through constructive social participation.

The text is arranged in thirty chapters, grouped into the following: Part I—Social Population, Part II—Social Motives, Part III—Social Processes, Part IV—Social Institutions, and Part V—Social Aims. Throughout the entire discussion, the author shows himself not only a scholar in his field, but a clear thinker as well. The aim is to be practical use and common sense in the treatment. The telic challenge is constantly thrown out. The approach to each topic is inductive, and the chapters close with terse statements of general laws or principles evolved in the presentation.

Professor Binder has written an excellent book, not only for class use, but for perusal by the layman struggling towards completion.

JOHN R. PATTERSON

Social Work and the Training of Social Workers, by
SYDNOR H. WALKER. University of North Carolina
Press, 1928, 241 pages.

Occasionally an outsider is able to secure a perspective on work done which is most illuminating to those actually engaged in the work. The relation of an undertaking to other fields of activity, and an evaluation of the claims of those engaged in the processes may well be more easily accomplished by the intelligent observer than by the practitioner himself. In this book, Miss Walker seems to have accomplished such a task for social work. Disclaiming any assumption of professional status herself, she has modestly suggested that as a lay person she may be able to interpret social work to the nonprofessional group. Her extremely readable efforts should be perused by the social worker himself as her interpretation of what he is doing and her comments on his techniques, his objectives and his claims for recognition will prove most enlightening. The practitioner, according to Miss Walker, in his attempts to analyze the objectives of social work finds himself uncertain as to whether his practice accords with his objectives. He is unable to impress the public with belief in his objectives, and as a result usually faces a lack of financial support which is shown in the salary schedule of social workers as compared with teachers. Miss Walker points out that there is great need for real coördination of social work. Such examples of councils of social agencies as exist are frequently fortuitous in their origin. Few, if any, social workers see the entire field. She stresses the fact that the assembling and supplying of data on community resources may well be as important a function of social work as the case work process which in America has precedence at present. Universities, she finds as a rule, lack confidence in the professional training of social workers. The social sciences and social work which began independently are gradually finding themselves in adjacent territory. The social scientist still feels that little of practical social work is based upon scientific data, and is surprised at the prophecy that social work may well become an asset to social science. The direct observation of social phenomena by the social worker, may give an additional impulse to the social scientist and at any rate he can hardly be indifferent to "seeing his work bear fruit, his observations becoming the basis of new activities."

Perhaps the most valuable part of the book is the discussion of training schools for social work with which Miss Walker is probably more familiar than anyone else in the country. She has personally visited almost every school engaged in training social workers, studied their curricula, and conferred with the instructors. As a general treatise on social work the volume can well be recommended to the uninitiated and as a critical discussion of the calling, the social worker will find Miss Walker's book most stimulating.

CLARENCE G. DITTMER

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Mrs. Edith B. Joynes, a teacher in Manry High School, Norfolk, Virginia, is president of the Department of Classroom Teachers in the National Education Association. Miss Joynes has been active in professional organization work in her home city and State and has been in demand to give addresses at meetings of associations in other states. The Board of Education at Norfolk has given Mrs. Joynes leave of absence to do field work in the interest of the department of which she is president and the National Education Association. She will leave on her first trip some time in October and will hold conferences in the following States: Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, District of Columbia, Georgia, New Mexico, North Carolina, South Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Texas.

Dr. Albert S. Hurst, dean of Teachers' College, Syracuse University for eight years, has presented his resignation to become effective at the end of the present scholastic year. He will resume his former post of professor of history and education in college.

President Ezra Squier Tipple of Drew University has presented his resignation to take effect upon the election of his successor. While resigning from the presidency, he stated that he had no thought of severing his connections with the university.

Dr. Frederick W. Lewis, president of the College of Emporia, Kansas, has been elected vice president of the New York Biblical Seminary.

Dr. Payson Smith, Commissioner of Education, Massachusetts, has been mentioned for United States Commissioner of Education. He is one of the best-equipped men in the country for the position in point of academic training, professional experience, and administrative capacity. He has held his present position since 1917.

Professor E. A. Kirkpatrick retires this year after thirty years of service in the State Normal School at Fitchburg, Massachusetts. He is now revising his well-known work on child study and will continue to pursue his interest in the ethical aspects of sociology.

Dr. Harvey R. Douglass of the University of Oregon is spending two years' leave of absence as visiting lecturer on secondary education at the University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Harvey N. Davis was installed president of Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, New Jersey, November 23. President Lowell of Harvard delivered the principal address at the inauguration.

Dr. Charles A. Richmond has resigned as president of Union College, a position he has held for twenty years, giving as the reason for resignation his age of seventy-six years. He will become president emeritus.

Dr. J. M. Kieran, who has, since 1904, been a member of the faculty of Hunter College, was made its president at a recent meeting of the

board of trustees. Dr. Kieran received degrees from City College, St. Francis Xavier, and Fordham University.

A timely program for high-school commencement—Current interest in the Kellogg Treaties and the promotion of World Peace Makers the subject of peace the appropriate keynote of a high-school commencement program. A list of Peace material suitable for graduation exercises is being prepared by the education committee of the Pennsylvania branch of the Women's International League.

The material will include music, Scripture reading, poems, and subjects for essays and speeches. The list will be ready for distribution immediately after Christmas, and can be obtained by application to the Women's International League, 1525 Locust Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

New Education Degree at Stanford.—The Board of Trustees of Stanford University has recently approved a plan, submitted by the faculty of the School of Education, for the establishment of a three-year graduate program of study leading to the professional degree of doctor of Education (Ed.D.). The new degree is to be primarily a professional degree, analogous to J.D., M.D., D.D., and similar to the degree of doctor of education recently established at the University of California and at Harvard.

According to Dean Ellwood P. Cubberley, of the School of Education faculty, three main reasons for the new degree were influential in its establishment. First was the desire to create a professional degree of equal weight and difficulty with the present Ph.D degree, but with the emphasis on professional preparation and mastery of educational materials rather than on research; second was the desire to provide a master-teacher type of degree to prepare a better teacher in subject-matter fields for the rising junior colleges; and third was the desire to create a new university degree that would relieve all departments of the university from the pressure of those older candidates for the Ph.D. degree who are not primarily interested in research, but who are good teachers in colleges and normal schools and who seek the degree due to pressure from the institutions with which they are connected, rather than from any deep interest in the advancement of knowledge through research.

The new degree is to be of two types: one is designed primarily to prepare for school administration and the teaching of education in universities, colleges, and normal schools; the other is designed primarily to prepare a new type of teacher in subject-matter fields for the junior colleges and for small colleges generally.

The time requirement for the two types of the doctor of education degree is the same, viz., a minimum of three years of study beyond the A.B. degree.

Each type of the degree will call for the completion of the requirements for a State teacher's certificate, including major and minor teach-

ing subjects, and at least two years of successful experience as a teacher, one of which must have been subsequent to taking the A.B. degree. For the master-teacher type of degree the equivalent of one year of advanced study in education will be waived, and the candidate will be expected to devote this time to advanced work in a teaching minor, such as history, mathematics or chemistry, and with a view to perfecting himself in the subject-matter field as well as in educational theory and practice.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Professor Robert W. Fredericks, of the department of education of William Jewell College, Liberty, Missouri, received his Ph.B. from Denison University; A.M. Yale; and the doctorate from New York University.

Miss Mary Moriarty, a special teacher of health in Public School 99, Manhattan, received her A.B. in New York University. She is the author of a treatise on health entitled *Many Roads to Health*. Miss Moriarty has been a special lecturer in health education in the summer sessions of the University of Michigan and the State Agricultural College of Utah.

Dr. Iago Galdston, who as a trained physician became more interested in the teaching and public aspect of the medical service, at present maintains the following educational relationship: lecturer on educational sociology in the School of Education, New York University; lecturer on Public Health at the New York Homeopathic Medical College and Flower Hospital; special lecturer on health education at the New York Training School for Teachers; professor of social and public health, Fordham University; Fellow of the American Public Health Association.

The Reverend Robert O'Brien is a graduate of Northwestern University. The materials presented in this series of articles are the results of his investigation for his doctorate in Northwestern University.

Professor Guy V. Price, chairman of the Department of Social Science of the Teachers College of Kansas City, received his A.B. degree from William Jewell College, and his master's from the University of Chicago.

FORTHCOMING ARTICLES

Reading Musical Programs Intelligently, by Henry Harap.

Sociology Applied in Curriculum Making, by George A. Retan.

How Many Colleges? by Stephen G. Rich.

Handedness, by Ira M. Gast.

The Jews: Race or Conglomerate, by Stephen G. Rich.

The Socially Efficient Community, by David Snedden.

Our 396 Major Social Problems and Issues and the Schools, by
A. O. Bowden.

Social Life of the Child of Junior-High-School Age, by Harvey
D. Douglass.

Need for Public Education in Advertisement Response, by Paul
Maxwell.

